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ABSTRACT

The role of print in serving the poor majority populations in the developing world is explored through discussions of (1) a rural Ghanian newspaper, the "Densu Times," (2) a popular French language magazine entitled "Famille et Developpement," published in Senegal, West Africa for change agents, (3) a series of cloth posters for classroom use in Africa, and (4) the "Moaltoal Times," a community run, daily, blackboard newspaper in the Philippines. Also included in this issue are two reports from the September 1977 Dartington conference on distance education for rural development. (STS)

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RECONSIDERING PRINT

In the first Development Decade, the 1960s, the role of print media seemed relatively clear. The expansion of formal education was seen as the primary means of promoting learning for development, and major textbook programs were undertaken. Journalism was considered indispensable in "modernizing" attitudes, and newspaper publishing was vigorously promoted. Literacy was seen as a necessary first step in education and was promoted through such efforts as the UNESCO Experimental World Literacy Program (EWLP).

However, ten years after EWLP began, there were more illiterates in the world rather than fewer. Newspapers, had, generally, reached only urban and relatively well-off people. And formal education had seemingly failed to cope with the learning needs of the poor, rural, and adult populations of the developing world.

As nonformal education has evolved to complement schooling, radio has been increasingly advocated as the medium for reaching the previously unreachable and for teaching around the literacy barrier. Outside the education sphere (formal and nonformal), radio reception and usage has increased throughout the developing world, while newspapers and other print media have generally languished.

Still, print media are probably being used in development projects more than ever. Colombia's impressive "radio school" network (ACPO) produces a weekly rural newspaper with a circulation of 70,000 and has sold millions of books in its "peasant library" series. In the Tanzanian "radio" health campaign, hundreds of thousands of study booklets were produced and distributed. England's International Extension College stresses three-way teaching, which involves study groups with radio and print.

Perhaps print media are too often taken for granted. They certainly are difficult to finance, distribute, and address to lower than middle-class populations that are less than highly literate. Yet it would be unwise to overlook the unique communication capabilities of print, or to fail to consider where print may help educate poor, rural, and adult populations in the developing world.

Indeed, print media have communication characteristics that no projection or broadcast medium can match. No other medium could reach the 6,000 worldwide readers of this publication at affordable costs. If we could finance a worldwide broadcast, a radio or TV announcer would need over ninety minutes to read this issue of Development Communication Report.

Even if this issue were read aloud, no listener could absorb all this information upon one reading. Weary listeners could not pause. Even those who maintained concentration throughout our broadcast would prove unable to recall most of the information. They could not review the information unless they had an audio or video tape recorder. If they did, they would have difficulty locating a given piece of information in a hurry.

Print's storage capacity, its facility for review, and its capacity for use without equipment make it suitable for meeting many of the information needs of educated middle-class people. In this issue, we explore its role in serving the poor majority populations in the developing world. Below we report on a rural newspaper, a magazine for change agents, a series of cloth posters for classroom use, and a community-run "blackboard newspaper."

We have touched here only lightly upon the better known opportunities and problems of book publishing in the developing world. We have also left for future issues the discussion of the evolving high technology of communications, with its awesome potential for conveying print and non-print messages to mass audiences.

We hope that the following articles will contribute to the reconsideration of print and its power. ■ *J.G.*

The *Densu Times* — Self-Made Literacy

The *Densu Times* research project undertaken in Ghana emerged from concern about illiteracy in general. A school and community newspaper distributed weekly to 2,500 middle school (junior high school level) students in rural areas could, researchers surmised, provide an answer to schoolbook shortages and facilitate a breakthrough in literacy development in Ghana and other developing countries.

The project also grew out of efforts to come to grips with three discomforting facts (and their simple corollaries) related to illiteracy in Ghana:

Fact I: Approximately 72 percent of Ghana's adults cannot read or write.

Corollary: Statistically and historically, this means that four to five million Ghanaians are handicapped. They are locked into an economy and lifestyle that is centuries old. They support themselves and their families by subsistence agriculture, fishing, herding and handwork, or they live in cities, where they are likely to be unemployed or underemployed. As a class, illiterate Ghanaians are poorly nourished, in relatively poor health, and inadequately "connected up" with their regional and national governments. They are not living up to their human potential, and they are not able to share fully the nation's goals and aspirations.

(Continued on page 3)

African Development News Magazine Finds Eager Public

In Senegal, West Africa, a publication originally created for grassroots change agents — extension workers, primary-school teachers and paramedics, is now outstripping all other magazines in newsstand sales. *Famille et Developpment* offers its readers basic information on family health and general development issues. So sought after is the magazine that subscriptions are often dropped because copies are frequently stolen from the mails.

(Continued on page 2)

A publication of the Clearinghouse on Development Communication
Supported by the Development Support Bureau of the U.S. Agency for International Development

(Continued from page 1)

Pierre Pradervand, founder and managing director of *F&D*, describes sub-Saharan Africa as one of the areas most blighted — from information scarcity — in the developing world. Assuming that the dissemination of useful information is key to the development process, Pradervand suspected that a publication carrying information vital to people's day-to-day lives would find an accepting public.

Thus, in the autumn of 1973, with the financial backing of the International Development Research Center (IDRC), a Canadian international aid agency, Pradervand, a Swiss sociologist with extensive experience in Africa, undertook a careful investigation of appropriate topics and formats for a projected periodical. The response of surveys, interviews with government officials, and participants in a feasibility conference held in Dakar suggested the need for an African periodical devoted to consciousness-raising of grassroots trainers on topics of family health and development. In November of 1974, a trial issue of 3,000 copies was circulated in West Africa. Today, circulation has reached 35,000 (with 12,000 of those sold in Senegal, where *F&D* is published).

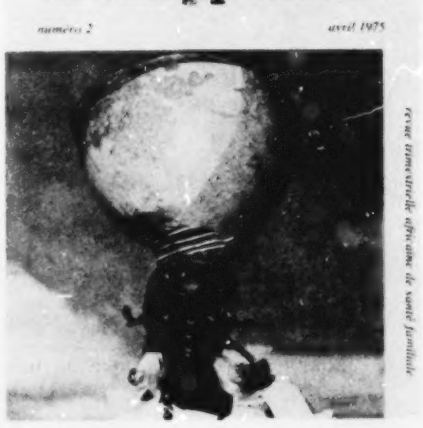
Topics treated in the magazine include general information on underdevelopment and basic economic concepts such as inflation and productivity, education and culture. The impact of foreign periodicals on Africa receives coverage, as does educational experience in various countries. Articles on agriculture and food production, maternal and child care, health, and family planning fill up a great deal of the magazine. Simple African recipes made from nutritious and available foods are featured, and each issue contains an article with accompanying teaching aids on one of a wide variety of scientific topics — from ocean pollution to solar energy.

An expansive editorial policy allows for candid treatment of hitherto taboo topics — the status and work of women in a male-dominated Islamic culture, and issues of sex education. Eighty percent of the letters-to-the-editor refer to sexual matters and most of them are from men. Pradervand cited the enormous chasm of information on sex and family-health habits, but said that while sex education is a concern of the magazine, it is not its major focus. *F&D's* overriding goal is to stimulate among its readers an ability to deal with their environments, and a spirit of self-reliance. In attempting to get information down to the grassroots level, *F&D* encourages people to help themselves with little or minimal reliance on outside help. Health and nutrition articles often suggest the do-it-yourself approach, educating readers in paramedical skills.

African cultural values are promoted in *F&D*. Various articles discourage the use of skin whiteners, condemn Western pornographic and violent films, and decry the influx of tawdry French magazines. More positive articles investigate the potential of traditional medicines, explore the use of existing youth institutions to promote rural development, and suggest adaptations of modern technology to locally available materials and needs.

Each issue's cover uses color to advantage, often illustrating African women in regional dress and jewelry. The professional photographs contribute to the magazine's successful competition with other newsstand items. Quality photos are not bought at exorbitant prices. Instead, they are purchased in bulk at a discount. In addition, while the cover is printed on glossy stock, the use of interior pages of high-grade newsprint keeps costs down. On such paper, the photos reproduce well, printing is usually black and white, and illustrations appear well defined and attractive. Inserts of tinted pages set off special treatment sections.

F&D's editorial board, with the exception of Pradervand, is entirely made up of Africans. Marie-Angelique Savane, a Senegalese social scientist, has edited the periodical from the beginning and exercises final authority over all articles. She and Pradervand develop most of the copy, contacting people when they travel.



F&D now reaches twelve francophone African countries — Senegal, Togo, Upper Volta, Benin, Mali, Ivory Coast, Zaire, Cameroon, Niger, Chad, Congo, and Mauritania. The actual size of the readership is difficult to assess, as copies of the magazine are often sold two or three times. Other copies are simply passed from hand to hand. While its present circulation is mainly in urban centers, the magazine has penetrated some surprisingly remote rural areas. But, until now there has been no aggressive dissemination of the magazine. If requested support is received, getting *F&D* out to the rural areas will assume greater importance.

Innovative means of distribution will have to be found in a region known for its poor roads and the inherent difficulties posed to transportation. But, Pradervand observes, in Chad, a country twice the size of France with a terrible road system, beer is successfully distributed to even the most remote villages. So, he is presently investigating beer distributors as a means of rural distribution. Pradervand would like to see the magazine reach northern Africa as well. At present, there is even a small market in Europe and those who read *F&D* feel that it provides the European public with a unique view of realistic African experiences seen through African eyes.

Utilization of the magazine is broad. In Togo, for instance, the Ministry of Education requests 4,000 copies and distributes them in cooperative bookstores run by the Ministry. Primary-school teachers take subscriptions, and the Ministry has publicly stated that it considers *F&D* a tool for educational reform.

Why does a magazine published and developed in Senegal appeal to the people of Togo? Pradervand and Savane's solution is not to name countries in an article. This approach is successful, Pradervand said, because the problems treated in the magazine are universal — sex education, unemployment, lack of medicine, and shortages of health centers. Also, editors screen out highly ideological or political statements thought inappropriate in view of *F&D's* foreign funding.

While a formal evaluation of the impact of the magazine has not been made, certain observable measures suggest its growing effectiveness: a phenomenal success on the newsstand with a public that Pradervand describes as generally non-reading, and voluminous and thoughtful reader response via the mail. Articles are frequently reprinted in the newspapers or broadcast on the radio. Finally, the magazine is increasingly used as a teaching tool and, in fact, its editors are now exploring new formats that would enable *F&D* to be used more widely in the classroom.

IDRC has funded the magazine for the past three years. At present *F&D* accepts no advertising, but financial pressures in the future could change that. Subsidized and less expensive than other newsstand items, *F&D* (at U.S. 80¢ per issue) is still beyond the means of most people. Receipts from sales cover only 5 percent of costs, but Pradervand sees this increasing to 15 percent in 1978. IDRC and a pending Ford Foundation grant will help meet most of the basic costs for 1978.

This month IDRC is expected to pass over legal responsibility of the magazine to the African Association for Development Education, and *F&D* will become an autonomous legal entity. Initially, the primary work of the Association will be to publish *F&D*, but textbooks and other educational materials are foreseen as future projects.

F&D's yearly subscription rate is U.S. $10.00. Information on rates for other countries can be gained by writing *Famille et Developpement*, B.P. 11007 D.C. Annex, Dakar, Senegal. ■ **J.M.**

(Continued from page 1)

Fact II: The schools — the institutions assigned by society to solve the problem of illiteracy — are losing the battle. Although Ghana is ahead of most African countries in providing education opportunities, an estimated 25 percent of Ghanaian children do not enter school, and fewer than half of those who do complete the elementary grades only.

Corollary: The government effort mounted against illiteracy must be extended by more and better schools or by new devices and institutions to supplement the school effort.

Fact III: Most of Ghana's communication resources (newspapers, radio, television, telephones, mail service) that encourage literacy are concentrated in the country's metropolitan areas, yet the key to development in Ghana lies in altering conditions of rural life, thereby raising the productivity of the 75 percent of the people engaged in agriculture.

Corollary: If communications resources are allocated more equitably, rural people will get the same motivations for literacy and opportunities for information as do those who live in urban areas.

THE *DENSU TIMES*

Ghana was a British colony until 1957 and inherited a British school system. English is the official language of the government in Ghana and is used in the schools from grade four on. Students are expected to achieve literacy in English at the middle school (junior high) level.

Accordingly, the research proposal for the *Densu Times* project reflected the assumption that the introduction of a school/community newspaper that carries local and personal news and that is written simply and illustrated with local pictures will motivate illiterates to read and semi-literates to improve their reading skills.

It was further anticipated that improvement in literacy levels could be measured quantitatively by comparing "before" and "after" scores on a reading-comprehension test of persons in experimental and control groups. The experimental-group persons would receive the newspaper weekly; those in control groups and in a similar school environment would not.

The research team was assured by school officials in Ghana's Eastern Region that a suitable group for testing would comprise middle school Forms II and III (8th and 9th-year students).

PRE-PROJECT PLANNING

With the counsel and cooperation of the school authorities in the Eastern Region, the research team identified 40 schools as typical and accessible. Twenty of the schools were selected as control groups; 20 were deemed "newspaper" or experimental schools. All the school villages are rural, about half have electricity, and only a few have piped water. All lie in the rich cocoa-producing area approximately 55 miles north of Accra, the capital of Ghana. The control schools and experimental schools are separated geographically.

Controlling research variables in fieldwork in rural Africa is not easy. Some schools are in isolated areas; students are uneasy with strangers, particularly if the strangers are foreigners; the competence of teachers is uneven; the availability of classroom teaching aids varies from village to village and ranges from zero to adequate; and demographic data are difficult to compile among illiterates and semi-literates.

But such threats to data distortion were taken into account in the research planning, and the research team tried to anticipate variables that might impair the value of the data. School administrators of the Eastern Region cooperated in the selection of experimental control-group schools and took precautions to insure that teachers in the control and experimental schools were roughly equal in teaching skills. Student access to textbooks and other teaching aids was similar, if not identical, in the matched schools; and attention was paid to the number of bush schools and village schools in the control and experimental groupings.

Students in the control group may have been aware of the *Densu Times*, but they did not gain access to the papers, and efforts were made to avoid relating the testing operations to the *Densu Times* in order to minimize the so-called "Hawthorne Effect" (i.e., stimulation of student effort by reason of their being participants in the research project).

TESTING

Students in Forms II and III of all 40 schools were "pre-tested" during the week of October 7, 1974, by members of the research team and by teachers recruited from the regional school office. The simple reading-comprehension test they took was designed with the help of staff members of the Division of Research and Curriculum of Ghana's Ministry of Education. It was fashioned after tests prepared by the West Africa Examinations Council, and its difficulty and suitability were tested on middle-school students outside the Eastern Region. The test-takers were assigned code numbers identifying them as to age, sex, grade, tribe, religion, vocation of father, education of parents, and size of village so that subgroups could be matched when the test results were processed.

One week after the testing was complete, the first issue of the *Densu Times* was published and delivered to all the newspaper schools. Teachers were invited to use the papers in the classroom as supplemental reading material, but they were not instructed to do so. Students were free to take the paper home.

Post-tests were given to the students in June of 1975 and again in June of 1976. Procedures were identical for the three tests. The students had the opportunity in the pretest and the first post-test to select 47 correct answers. In the second post-test, the students could select a maximum of 37 correct answers. At the end of the first school year, 1,951 of the participating students were still in school and turned in test papers. At the end of the second year, 1,659 students were still in school and completed the test.

In addition to paired groupings for all the students by control and experimental groups, pairings were made by sex and by Forms II and III. Groups have also been matched for comparison by mean scores in "top third," "middle third," and "low third." Over the two years of the study, all the experimental students showed a mean test-score gain of 17.21 percent; the control-group students had a mean gain of 11.77 percent.

Experimental-group students who started the project in Form II posted a mean test-score gain of 18.9 percent, while the paired control-group students gained 13.9 percent. Experimental-group students who began in Form III had a mean score gain of 15.5 percent; the corresponding control-group students had a mean score gain of 9.61 percent.

Some significance must be attached to the performance of the low-scoring students in the study. During the first year the newspaper appeared to have a negative effect on students whose mean scores comprised the low one-third. First-year data suggest that these low-score students were illiterate and guessed at answers to the examination questions. In most cases, these students posted higher scores on the pretest than on the post-test, even though they had completed a full academic year of schooling between the two test dates. During Year II the pattern was reversed. The "slow" students had percentage gains that often matched, and in some cases outstripped, the gains of the "bright" students — those in the top third and middle third groupings.

As anticipated, information other than statistical data, as well as ideas, flowed from the research. From the beginning, researchers had hypothesized that the newspaper would (1) supplement the continuing efforts of middle-school teachers to make reading a pleasurable, practical, and useful skill; (2) ensure that students gain the "reading habit" even though they may not enter secondary school; and (3) introduce into village homes the experience of receiving an easy-to-read newspaper with local personal news about neighborhood problems and activities, and thus motivate non-reading adults to become literate. And, indeed, the enthusiasm with which school administrators, government officials, teachers, students, and villagers responded to the newspaper may ultimately prove of more practical importance in Ghana than statistical evidence of literacy improvement. →

COMMUNITY RESPONSE

Even before the *Densu Times* was a year old, the Eastern Region Education Officer had the following to say in a letter to his superior, the Principal Secretary of the Ministry of Education:

"As a research project, the *Densu Times* has great potentialities for providing a vital tool for the realization of a major breakthrough in our bid to revolutionize our educational system at that vital level, namely, the Middle School level . . . I have no doubt in my mind as to the total success of the project and the realization of its objectives . . ."

Teachers in schools receiving the *Densu Times* also held the paper in high regard as a classroom resource. In response to a questionnaire, 83 percent of the teachers rated the paper "more useful" than the available textbooks in teaching reading skills. Although teachers received no instructions from the research team or from their school administrators about the use of the paper, 75 percent of the teachers used the *Densu Times* in the classroom "every week without fail." The teachers, without exception, recommended that "school/community newspapers like the *Densu Times* should be introduced throughout Ghana as part of the academic program for Middle Schools."

One teacher used the *Densu Times* as the vehicle for organizing an extra-curricular *Densu Times* Readers Club. The club enrolled 124 members and prepared a constitution that set for its goals the following: "(a) to maintain and sustain the members' interest in reading the *Densu Times*, (b) to promote bonds of friendship among members through debate, games, get togethers, excursions, etc., and (c) to assist the staff of the *Densu Times* in making the paper worthy of its purpose."

Additional evidence of the impact of the *Densu Times* came in its acceptance by the students and by their overt response to it. The students were invited in the second issue of the paper to submit letters, articles, news, or stories for publication. During the remaining 24 weeks of the first year of publication, the editors received 1,335 written contributions for publication. Throughout the two years, contributions from students (and from townspeople) came to the editors at the rate of approximately 35 per week.

The effect of the *Densu Times* in the villages outside the school environment was difficult to measure with accuracy, but a survey showed that the paper did affect non-students. A sample of 205 adults was interviewed during May of the first project year in villages where the newspaper schools were located. Over half, 109, were familiar with the paper and had either read it or had had it read to them. Of 72 illiterate adults interviewed, 10 indicated interest in the *Densu Times* and had had stories read to them during the year.

In homes of students who received the *Densu Times* at school, the paper was recognized and used more heavily. In an interview survey of 30 such homes, 58 persons reported either having read the paper or having it read to them.

CONCLUSIONS AND AFTERTHOUGHTS

The *Densu Times* project suggests, at the very least, that the rural newspaper deserves further research, and possibly additional trials. Indeed, the Government of Ghana is already acting on results of the *Densu Times* research.

During 1975-1976 a school/community newspaper, the *Akora New Era*, was published for 20 middle schools in the Central Region near Swedru; and a paper, the *Shinkofi Times*, began publication in October 1976 near Tamale in the Northern Region.

The data, the responses of school and government administrators, and the enthusiasm for the *Densu Times* of teachers and students all serve to indicate that the school/community newspaper is an effective teaching aid and a suitable device for dealing with illiteracy.

■ **M. Neff Smart, Communication Department, University of Utah.** **Research for this article was supported by the University of Ghana, the Carnegie Corporation, and the Ghana Ministry of Information & Ministry of Education.**

The *Densu Times* is produced weekly during the school year by a team of three reporters, a typist, and two graduate students at the University of Ghana's School of Journalism. It is edited and pasted up camera-ready by the students and is printed by a government press. It is delivered each Thursday to 20 schools on a route approximately parallel to the Densu River, which winds its way 100 miles through Ghana's Eastern Region.

News for the *Densu Times* is gathered by three semi-professional reporters employed by the project. They live in villages near the newspaper schools and prepare news stories and features related to the students and to village activities.

Included in the weekly issues are a map, a simple crossword puzzle, a quiz, and articles and stories contributed by student and village readers.

Profiles In Translation

The first 16 *Project Profiles* can now be obtained in Spanish and French. Brief summaries of development projects that use the communication media, the *Profiles* are published by the Clearinghouse at the rate of eight per quarter and are underwritten by the Office of Education and Human Resources of the Development Support Bureau of US/AID.

Requests for *Project Profiles* should be addressed to Alexander Greeley at the Clearinghouse.

A Word About Print Technologies

Printing holds a place of importance in the development of communication for two reasons. First, print provides something more permanent than a tape recording of either sound or of sound linked with vision. Second, it can be used by the individual without additional equipment.

Printing covers a wide range of dissimilar techniques and processes. When regarded as a technology appropriate to a particular situation, it has to include all techniques of reproducing words and pictures on paper, and thus stencil duplication may occupy as important a place as lithographic printing. Some printing techniques are simple and can be used by a village community in which craft abilities are not highly developed. Other more involved techniques require elaborate equipment and are unsuitable for use in a rural community.

Unfortunately, many laymen regard printing in terms of a single uncomplicated process. When those who hold this inaccurate view give advice to communities with little or no technical experience, the product is often so poorly produced as to be of doubtful value. Sometimes the process is abandoned altogether under such circumstances.

To ensure that the printed matter for a developing country is effective both in content and quality, it is essential (a) that the degree of local literacy is understood, (b) that the material is written in simple language and preferably compiled by someone with knowledge of the local situation, (c) that illustrations are of an uncomplicated nature and reproducible by the process of printing selected for the locale, and, (d) if print materials are to be produced locally, that the printing process used be one that is suitable both technically and economically to the locale in which it is to be adopted.

It is also evident that when a large quantity of printed matter is to be produced for distribution over a wide area, Third World publishers who are not accustomed to dealing with printed material in bulk do not always proceed in the most economical manner. Often, these authorities need counsel just as much as the village teacher wishing to produce some simple educational material does.

Thus, in London, the Printing Panel of the Intermediate Technology Group seeks to offer advice to all who need it. The Panel treats each case separately, and has among its advisors people who are experienced in various aspects of printing. Its field of operation is geographically unlimited, though it advocates making the best use of any organization that might work closer to a particular field situation than its own members can.

■ **H.W. Larken, Chairman, Printing Panel of the Intermediate Technology Group, 9 King Street, London WCZE 8HN, U.K.**

On File at ERIC

Library services and training, instructional materials for job-related training, and the communication of information in solid state physics in the People's Republic of China are among the topics discussed in recent entries in the ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) files.

- Marshall, John. *Library Services for Native People: A Brief to the Ontario Task Force on the Education of Native Peoples*. November 1975, 17p. (ED 136 768).

  Information is essential to the native people of Canada if they are to preserve their national heritage and determine their own destiny. They need the information that libraries can provide; however, they also need special information that only they can create, and they need to participate in the production and dissemination of these tools of individual and communal development. This study examines the problem from three perspectives: access to existing library services, development of native-run library services, and effective cooperation between the two. Available from EDRS in microfiche for 83¢, in photocopy for $1.67, both prices plus postage.

- *Notes on Professional Education for Librarianship in the United States*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1976, 8p. (ED 140 639).

  This outline, which briefly describes the American system of education with major emphasis on professional library education, was designed for the foreign student interested in pursuing a graduate degree in library science. Specific topics include the A.L.A. accreditation system for library schools, the semester system, application and admission procedures, and scholarships and fellowships available from library schools. Available from EDRS in microfiche for 83¢, in photocopy for $1.67, both prices plus postage.

- Catoline, James E. *Software for Managing the Process of Manpower Training for Economic and Industrial Development*. Waltham, Mass: GTE Sylvania Training Operations, 1977, 36p. (ED 140 845).

  Job training and human resource development are necessary to provide qualified specialists to take over the operation of factories, businesses, and institutions of higher education in developing nations. GTE Sylvania Training Operations (STO) has developed and made available a number of curricular materials and evaluation instruments for its training programs. Both can be used effectively in technical and language training programs, whether academic, commercial, or industry related. Discussed in this document are an English Proficiency Test, a Language Competency Scale, an Oral Interview Rating System, a Cross-Cultural Orientation Course, a Modern Concepts of Management Course, Applied Sciences Aptitude Test Batteries, an English for Special Purposes Curriculum, Intensive Courses in several languages, and other useful materials. Available from EDRS in microfiche for 83¢, in photocopy for $2.06, both prices plus postage.

- Fitzgerald, Anne, and Charles P. Slichter. *Solid State Physics in the People's Republic of China. A Trip Report of the American Solid State Physics Delegation*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences — National Research Council, Committee on Scholarly Communication with the People's Republic of China, 1976, 20p. (ED 136 789).

  This chapter, from a report on Chinese research and education in solid state physics, concerns the communication of information in the scientific community and the transfer of information to students and practical users (manufacturers). While the number of different modes and channels of communication are essentially uninfluenced by international boundaries, their roles and characteristics are quite different for cultural reasons. A brief narrative appraisal is provided on exchange of personnel, seminars, conferences, research journals, reports, travel and publication outside China, and libraries. The transfer of technology from research to production mainly involves personal contacts, a system that works well given the relatively small scientific and technical establishments. Available from EDRS in microfiche for 83¢, in photocopy for $1.67, both prices plus postage.

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■ **Barbara B. Minor, Publications Coordinator, ERIC Clearinghouse on Information Resources**

The Facts on Paper

The following information was excerpted from an article by Dan Morgan, "The Third World's Paper Gap," which appeared in the Washington Post *on December 4, 1977.*

1) About 85 percent of the factories and technology for making packaging, pulp and paper are located in developed nations — and only tiny amounts of their product reach the Third World. In 1975, the LDCs used only 11.8 million tons of the total 133 million tons produced in the world, and imported only 4 million tons.
2) "Failure to provide for the growing demands for paper in the less developed countries seems likely to undercut much of the current effort to expand mass education and increased literacy," says a widely circulated paper by a private analyst.
3) According to (one) consultant, many governments of developing countries do not perceive that small investments in paper tend to become magnified in the economy. Yet these investments bring about extensive improvements in communications and commodity distribution.
4) The FAO estimates that developing countries will increase their consumption of paper from the present 11.8 million tons a year to between 28.7 and 37.5 million tons by 1990.

   "Paper continues to be freely available to developing countries in the international market," the new study said. "No serious shortage of supply is foreseen in the immediate future."

   Yet it is uncertain how the non-wealthy world will reach these volumes.

   The countries can step up imports — but this will leave them at the mercy of world price changes that temporarily drove paper costs beyond the reach of many of them in 1974.
5) Taking note of paper's importance, development officials at the United Nations are emphasizing investments in new kinds of smaller, cheaper plants relying on local paper-making resources such as bamboo, straw, reeds, bagasse, kenal and sisal. These materials don't produce quality paper, but they work, say the officials.

Job Opportunity

A communication specialist and *DCR* reader has informed the Clearinghouse that a one-month grant is available for a graduate student in nonformal education or communications. The directors of the U.S. AID-funded Mali Livestock II project are looking for an assistant to help evaluate the project in May of 1978 in Mali. The grant will cover airfare and include a modest per diem. Fluency in French is required.

Interested parties should send resumes to Benedict Tisa, NFE, 45 Haddon Avenue, Westmont, NJ 08108, U.S.A.

Reusable Print — Cloth Posters

Without paper-production facilities of their own, many developing countries must import all their paper. Recent world paper shortages and skyrocketing paper prices have made it more difficult for these countries simply to maintain previous levels of paper supplies, not to mention keep up with growing demand.

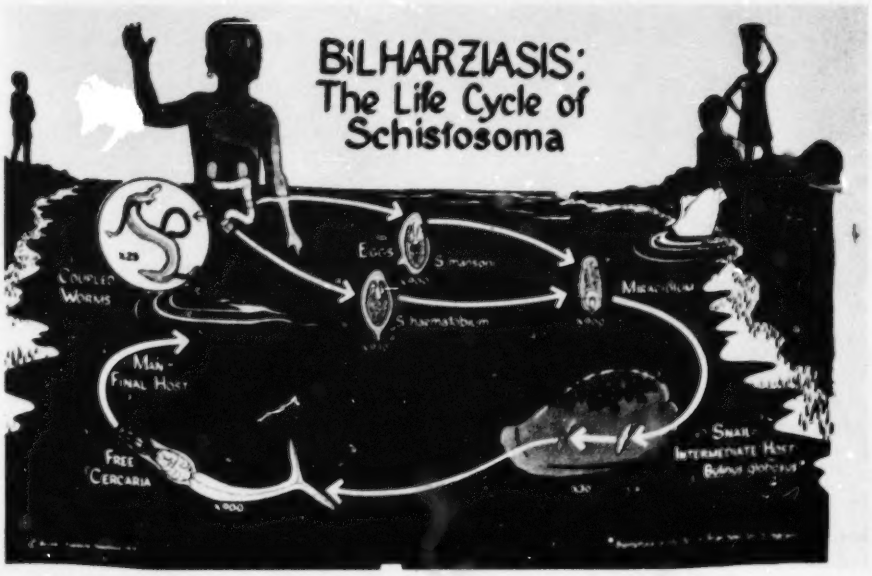
Not surprisingly, posters and visual aids are difficult to come by in paper-short nations. Because they are so expensive, such aids are often beyond the budgets of financially strapped schools. Because they are so fragile, they are too often kept locked up in cabinets instead of hung in plain view. In addition, many imported illustrations and other course materials are irrelevant to the cultural setting and local needs. In short, the problem of supplying visual aids is one of quality as well as quantity.

Screen-printing illustrations on cloth is an example of a visual-aids technology that is appropriate for production and use in many poor countries in Africa and elsewhere. This manufacturing process is already used locally by many textile companies to produce much of the colorful cotton market-cloth worn by young and old alike. In fact, textile firms in several developing countries have already manufactured fabrics illustrating slogans on national campaigns — such as "Healthful Foods" in Tanzania and "Operation Feed Yourself" in Ghana.

Screen-printed cloth offers three main advantages over conventional visual materials: it is culturally relevant, it can be manufactured locally at existing factories, and it is durable. While paper may be viewed as a luxury item and electric/electronic visual media as novelties, the printed cloth medium is a familiar one in both rural and urban communities. The durability of cloth makes it particularly useful for rural areas, both in the classroom and in the village: it is resistant to wear and tear, easily washed when soiled, and readily folded up and carried by roving extension workers.

Since the textile medium seemed to be such a natural one for Africa, a prototype operation was organized in Ghana in 1974 to test the technical feasibility of printing large finely-illustrated posters on cloth, to find out how acceptable the cloth medium would be to educators and health personnel, and to determine the production costs involved. With the assistance of private educational organizations, private industry, and government agencies, Ghanaian art students designed and printed on cloth 4-color illustrations of a variety of subjects. They made a chart of the eye, an illustration of the digestive system, and a physical map of Africa.

While their impact in the classroom has yet to be systematically evaluated, these large (3 feet by 5 feet) illustrations were presented at several conferences in Ghana in 1974 and distributed to educators from various African countries for their appraisal. At the science teachers' annual conference, teachers at all levels (from primary schools through training colleges) unanimously preferred such locally produced textile aids to imported ones. Nursing administrators attending an annual conference were also highly positive and were excited to see for the first time a teaching aid depicting an African rather than a European. At an inter-African conference on environmental science, the delegates also received both the medium and the specific designs quite enthusiastically and remarked that the printed cloth medium could greatly enhance public health efforts in their countries.



(One of many cloth posters created by Beverly Donoghue.)

Like most printing processes, silk-screen printing is economically feasible if done on a mass-production basis. Based on a minimum order of 4,000 yards, or 2,400 copies of 3' x 5' posters, preliminary cost estimates made in Ghana in 1974 indicated that these large 4-color illustrations could be screen-printed on cloth for less than U.S. $3.00 each — as compared with U.S. $13.00 for imported paper ones. Although this estimate does not include storage, marketing, and distribution costs, this production price would be very competitive with imported items, and sales at the estimated price would benefit the local cloth industry. The large numbers of primary schools (over 10,000 in Ghana) and nonformal education programs provide a significant potential market for these textile visual aids, and translating the texts to the vernacular usually simply involves substituting a single stencil of the appropriate words.

Some of the printing materials needed in this process would have to be imported, requiring an outlay of foreign exchange. But if the amount of foreign exchange currently spent on importing paper aids was used for these supplies instead, local industry could produce both more and better visual materials at lower actual cost. It is also possible that greater use could be made of local dyes and screen materials to decrease the cost further and make rural-based cottage industry production more feasible, particularly for smaller scale nonformal education programs.

Given the enthusiastic acceptance of textile visual aids thus far, the medium appears to have great potential. As a durable, comparatively inexpensive, culturally relevant and indigenous product, textile visuals could well serve both formal and nonformal educational efforts in Africa and in other developing regions as well.

■ **Beverly Emerson Donoghue, Ph.D. Candidate, Columbia Teachers College**

Erasable Print — Blackboard Newspapers

The *Moalboal Times* is a daily blackboard newspaper that has appeared without a break for seven years. This alone makes it unique in the Philippines: all other mass media missed at least a day when martial law was declared in September 1972.

The *Moalboal Times* is a string of 25 blackboards (green boards, to be precise) located throughout the 18,000-member community. One big board — ten feet high, 32 feet wide — is next to the market, the priest's house and the main bus stop right in the middle of the *poblacion*, or town center. Twelve more boards, about one yard square, are located on street intersections around the *poblacion* and 12 more small boards are outside schools in the 12 *barrios* (districts) around the town. About 3,000 people live in the *poblacion;* the remainder live in the *barrios*, which are up to 18 kilometers away.

The *Moalboal Times* is the major "mass" medium in the community. The daily paper from Cebu City and the Manila dailies can all reach the town before noon (there are about 20 round-island buses a day), but their circulation is approximately two each — to the priest and the mayor. At an average price of about 75 centavos (10 U.S. cents), they are simply too expensive in a place where the average daily wage is about five pesos (70 U.S. cents). Many people have transistor radios, but it is a fair bet that music, rather than news and information, attracts the prime audience.

As in most small agricultural communities, receiving news and information is one of the main reasons for social activity. And most people in Moalboal still go to the shops or a local meeting place at least once a day. (There is little refrigeration and the money comes in on a day-to-day basis.) Literacy is surprisingly good—about 80 percent in Cebuano, the mother tongue, and about 30 percent in English. Filipino, the national language, is between the two but growing, thanks to national educational policy. Thus, the blackboards are available at the social meeting places — and most people can read them.

Above all, the *Moalboal Times* is a team effort. The news-gathering function is well organized. The township is divided into 60 *puroks*, informal neighborhood associations without constitutions or bylaws but with a leader and a small council representing adults, youth, and schoolchildren. Each *purok* lets the *Times* know — by word of mouth or hand-carried note — what is happening in its area. Next come the market vendors, who spend most of their day at the center of social life, hearing and dispensing local information. Fil Mendosa, chairman of the vendors' association and owner of the store opposite the main central board, is a member of the five-man editorial board of the *Times*. He is also the paper's chalk cartoonist. Other members are the government adult and community education officer in the town, the priest, a policeman and a lawyer. The priest takes legal responsibility for the publication, and news from outside the community comes from the newspapers taken by the priest.

Production of one day's issue goes thus:

About 4:00 p.m.: copy for the next day is collected, collated, edited, and typed by one of the editorial board, usually the priest. A team of teenage girls at one of the central secondary schools delivers copies of the next day's news to the homes of primary-school teachers who work in the 12 *barrio* primary schools but who live in the *poblacion*.

About 10:00 p.m.: younger children, who aspire to one of the "line" jobs in the *Times* organization, clean all the boards of that day's news.

About 5:30 a.m.: one secondary school boy writes the copy prepared the day before onto a board in the church secondary school. This is copied by 13 other boys who then transfer it to the central board and the 12 smaller ones in the *poblacion*. Meanwhile the teachers, considered assistant editors of the *Times*, have reached their *barrios* and substitute one or two "central" items with purely *barrio* news. Their copy is given to "staffers" to write on *Times* boards in the schools. When school starts, other pupils copy the news into exercise books for transmission to their families later.

Thus, by midday at the latest, most members of the community have been exposed either verbally or visually to the contents of the *Times*. In the occasional event of a major news break — a typhoon warning, for instance — the church bell summons the *poblacion*-based "board boys" to collect new copy for a "replate" of their boards.

For obvious reasons, the size of the readership is difficult to determine, but eyewitness observation confirms that the boards are well read, especially in the cool of the morning as people go to work and to market.

Content of the boards is limited. There are at least five stories every day — a minimum of three hard news stories and two or three features. The hard news stories take the main display: a local story is always the lead, followed by a regional or national one, then by an international one. The main feature story is usually a "man-in-the-street" interview organized in advance through and by the secondary-school children. The other main feature is a short editorial, usually written by the priest (although purely religious themes are on Sundays only). Weekday themes are usually some aspect of local community life, and never overtly political. Only the international story is in English; everything else is in Cebuano.

Thus, the actual volume of information each day — about 500 words — is not great, certainly nowhere near even that of a one-sheet newspaper. But this in itself can have compensations in both readership and comprehension, especially when literacy may be fairly wide but not especially deep.

Given the pressures on space, editorial control is exercised strongly in favor of stories with a social or community purpose: thus, on the day Miss Universe was being crowned in Manila, the *Times*' main story was about an honest taxi driver who returned 4,000 pesos (U.S.$570) left in his cab. Miss Universe was a small story.

The *Times* carries no advertising, partly because of space limitations and partly because in a socially cohesive place like Moalboal everybody knows who's selling what anyway — or they can quickly find out. Another major reason is that basically the *Times* doesn't need to take ads. (And how many publications can say that?) The marine plywood boards initially cost about 350 pesos plus 50 pesos for paint. In seven years they have needed replacing once — by which time the materials cost had inflated to 700 pesos (U.S. $100). The only ongoing costs are for chalk, about 7 U.S. cents for 12 sticks a day, and 100 pesos (U.S. $14) for a fresh coat of paint every six months, depending on seasonal climatic ravages. Thus, the annual costs are U.S. $25 for chalk, U.S. $28 for paint and about U.S. $25 depreciation for the boards (assuming a four-year life) or a total of U.S. $78. (For the statistically minded, and assuming all Moalboalians read the *Times*, the cost per thousand of reaching this audience is U.S. $0.01187!) All the staff are unpaid, and paper expenses are borne by the schools.

But U.S. $78 a year is still more than 550 pesos in Moalboal, and that sort of money represents the cash value of 110 days' hard work. And the way in which the 700 pesos was raised when the boards needed replacing indicates how the people valued their blackboard newspaper. The priest simply asked for a collection to replace the boards — and the money was raised in two collections. (Until church collections were abolished, the average collection yielded less than ten pesos.)

So what are the problems? The climate — tropical with a pronounced rainy season although usually spared from typhoons — does not affect the boards as much as might be expected. True, they are wiped clean by driving rain but they say that in seven years there has not been even one day when it was not possible for the contents to remain visible for at least a few hours. One or two boards have occasionally blown down, but the community quickly had them restored. So, basically, the rains present no problem.

The human elements would appear more of a threat. But in the seven-year history of the *Times*, there have been only three instances of graffiti and only one of outright attack.

Political problems are avoided mainly by giving everybody access to the board. News from the mayor — the local representative of national government — gets its fair share of space, as does the news of all groups. Nobody is able to say the paper doesn't reflect his or her position. Access to the *Times* boards is based on nothing more than residence and willingness to get involved, a big plus in winning acceptance throughout the community. Over time, a sense of pride in the boards has developed: every one we saw was in good repair and clearly visible — something quite rare for the visual word in the Philippine landscape, which is often typified by semi-obliterated and rusting commercial signs.

The role of the *Times* reflects what has happened in Moalboal over the past few years. It is a symbol of the vitalized community as well as a contributor, and no newspaper anywhere can hope for much better than that.

■ **Jack Glattbach, Division of Information, UNICEF. A longer version of this article was originally published by CYCLE (P.O. Box 3923, Grand Central Station, New York, New York 10017).**

Close-Up on Distance Teaching in Lesotho

Designated by the United Nations as one of the world's dozen poorest countries, Lesotho has social and economic problems that are as difficult as its mountains to scale. Forty percent of the country's work force is employed away from home in South African mines, most of the rest of the employed eke out a living on overtaxed agricultural land, and only 60 percent of Basotho children under 14 receive any formal schooling.

But in addition to formidable obstacles to development, Lesotho also has a bootstrap service organization, the Lesotho Distance Teaching Center, that stands a chance of influencing the country's economic picture.

On hand at this unique educational resource depot are trained teachers, media specialists, community development workers, and full production facilities for print materials and radio programs. On request, LDTC provides affordable educational services tailored to fit local needs and rendered in a spirit of cooperation.

ORIGINS

The Center began in 1974 when Lesotho's Minister of Education asked the International Extension College to design and to recruit staff for a distance-teaching operation. The Government of Lesotho had for some years been considering the idea of giving correspondence education a broad backing and had already sponsored a few modest correspondence projects in Lesotho and expressed interest in several others. It had also cooperated with Michael Young of the IEC, who in 1973 had conducted for the Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland Correspondence Committee a survey of potential uses for distance teaching. Thus, when it called on IEC, the Government was prepared to lend the project full support — including radio time, franking privileges, and a ready ear.

Salaries and rent, however, cannot be paid out in good will and postage stamps. So a vital early task was to find external funding. The job, according to one IEC report, proved enough of an ordeal to chasten dreamers, if not optimists. For a year and a half, the Center scraped by on small donations from a variety of sources. Bilateral and unilateral aid picked up only in late 1975 when the Irish Government made a donation large enough to enable the Center to get off the treadmill of mere subsistence. This grant was followed up by a second from Ireland, one from the Dutch agency NOVIB, and support from the World Bank in the form of housing and equipment.

Finding qualified people to run the Center turned out to be somewhat easier than funding it. The IEC called Philip Baker from his post as deputy director of the Mauritius College of the Air (a "sister institution" of IEC) in early 1974. Under Baker's guidance, and later that of the present director Paud Murphy, the Center drew together a versatile staff of thirty administrators, production specialists, organizers, and tutors. While unsuccessful at first in its search for native curriculum writers, it has honored the commitment of its founders to use indigenous talent whenever possible. At present, the Center employs only six expatriots, some of whom are hard at work training their own replacements.

Precisely because fund-raising and recruiting were slow-going, LDTC developed realistic ideas about how much it could accomplish: grand schemes were from the beginning quite simply out of the question. While the Center's troubles should not be romanticized, temporary poverty did act as the crucible of good sense and ingenuity. With this in mind, the Center has adopted as its identifying symbol a picture of a flying molepe — a long-tailed bird that sometimes has trouble getting off the ground but that is otherwise well-equipped for flight.

RESEARCH

The Center tactfully made its first piece of outside business the attempt to find out both what other agencies were doing in Lesotho and what needs were going unmet. This initial legwork helped the Center to avoid unnecessary duplication and competition, to reveal its intention to work closely with existing organizations, and to open channels of communication with local leaders and citizens. Early community discussions, in turn, brought to the fore the Basotho people's keen interest in income-generating activities and their preference for cooperative rather than individual efforts — both of which have since been shaping forces in the Center's development.

Many of the Center's early projects were research-oriented, aimed at creating the data the Center needed to launch other kinds of activities. Two typical groundbreaking efforts were a small test of the efficiency of Lesotho's postal service and the compilation of all the figures relating to the distribution of newspapers, magazines, and leaflets in Lesotho. (LDTC shares this kind of generative information with many of the more than 25 health, education, and development agencies identified in its survey of resources and also circulates brief summaries of research conducted by these other organizations.)

COURSES FOR CREDIT

The Center sponsors two types of education projects. One type is designed to meet the needs of students studying for standard certificates. At the Junior Certificate level, students can subscribe to courses in mathematics, agricultural science, bookkeeping, and commerce. At the "0" (or college entrance) level, they can study modern math. By 1978, students at either level will be able to take courses in human and social biology, English, and Sesotho, while commerce and geography will become "0"-level options.

Students enrolled in LDTC's preparatory courses enhance their at-home study by listening to lectures broadcast over Radio Lesotho. They also attend intensive weekend-long sessions, receive a newsletter and "Learn to Study" booklets, and correspond with tutors (whom they may or may never meet). Typically, weekend courses are convened periodically by the tutors in their home villages.

NONFORMAL EDUCATION

The primary vehicles of "learning for life," as LDTC's nonformal education courses are sometimes called, are booklets. Funded and guided by public service agencies, the Center develops,

The IEC

The International Extension College comes from the same intellectual stable as Britain's Open University. In the autumn of 1962, Michael Young, now chairman of the IEC, wrote an article and urged the creation of an open university to add to Britain's educational resources, then strained to capacity.

Nothing happened as a result of the article. So, a year later, Young established the National Extension College as a pilot for the open-university idea. When, in fact, the Open University was established by the British government in 1966, the National Extension College continued to exist, working at different levels and teaching different students.

Since its foundation in 1963, the NEC has received a steady stream of inquiries from overseas about correspondence education, or distance teaching. It tried to answer these as best it could, but the help it could offer the developing world was quite limited — advising visitors or correspondents from overseas and providing courses to bona fide correspondence institutions when it looked as if these would meet their needs. While what the NEC could do was limited, the widespread interest in distance teaching in the later 1960s suggested that the developing world saw it as a possible solution to some of the educational problems it inherited as part of the colonial legacy.

A preliminary visit to Africa by Young in 1970 confirmed that there were jobs that an international agency committed to distance teaching and its use to solve major educational problems could do. In 1971, with the aid of a grant from the Elmgrant Trust and the hope of one from the Ford Foundation, IEC was established. It now provides information and advice on distance teaching: the combined use of printed matter (usually correspondence courses), broadcasting, and face-to-face teaching. It is especially interested in the use of these techniques for nonformal education. ■ **From IEC literature**

produces, and often distributes booklets on subjects ranging from crochet to baby care. (A staff member who did not know how to crochet wrote the how-to-crochet book, correctly figuring that teaching himself the art would help him explain it clearly and simply.)

Most booklets and other print materials are devised to meet a need uncovered by research. Some are then floated like new currency into the "educational market" to find their own value. Others are introduced as part of broader systematic campaigns on pressing social problems or issues.

LDTC's cookbook, written jointly with the Catholic Relief Service, is a project of the first sort. It was designed to reflect CRS's commitment to making the value of protein understood widely and was distributed along with subsidized high-protein foods at CRS's sixty clinics in Lesotho in late 1975. Twenty thousand copies at 5¢ each were sold within two months.

The impact of the cookbook has been hard to gauge. A survey of 101 women in the distribution area revealed that fewer than half had seen the book (though many had heard it mentioned on radio spots developed at the Center), that more than half the women who saw the book bought it, and that two-thirds of the buyers had tried one or more of the recipes included in the book.

The Center is approaching this information from various angles — trying to judge the effectiveness of the cookbook, its weaknesses, the validity of the survey, and the cookbook's representativeness of the booklet medium as a tool in adult education. In a similar exercise of thrift, it is using a survey of the audience exposed to the radio announcements of the publication of the cookbook to test the effectiveness of radio as a medium as well as of the nutrition message.

A road-safety campaign conducted in the districts of Maseru and Mafeteng in the spring of 1977 is a project of the second sort. At the behest of the police force and an inter-ministerial committee, the Center manned all fronts in this campaign. It produced posters, ten different radio vignettes, and a personal letter addressed and sent or handed to drivers. Dedicated to the proposition that drinking and driving do not mix, the multi-faceted campaign lasted two weeks and was followed immediately by a survey of 107 residents of the district.

The follow-up survey satisfied the LDTC staff that the campaign had been carried out successfully. It showed that 60 percent of those polled had heard the message over at least one medium, that 90 percent of those who heard the message remembered it, and that the great majority viewed the message and the campaign in a favorable light.

Suggestions for new editions to the Center's library of booklets on domestic science and family economics range widely. Manuals on vegetable-growing, leather-working, tree-planting, and latrine-building are all being considered. Popular demand will determine which is printed first.

Demand has also kept the Center's project-related priorities in flux. At the start, LDTC concentrated on meeting an obvious need for study courses for Certificate Exams, and it continues to pay special attention to the educational needs of unqualified primary-school teachers and of young drop-outs. But over time its emphasis has split, if not shifted, to give life-long learning activities of all types greater prominence. Recently, for example, it has run training courses for fieldworkers. These courses, a new spin-off of nonformal education activities, are requested and paid for by the agencies that employ the fieldworkers.

The Center's future direction, impossible to predict exactly, will both condition and reflect Lesotho's overall development strategies. Whatever direction it takes, LDTC appears to be a likely candidate for survival simply because it does not allow one positive force to overpower another. So far, the Center has been able to balance the tendency to diversify with the commitment to remain local, sound business practice with high ideals, and creativity with productivity. ■ K.C.

Selected LDTC Publications

Learn How to Study

Handbook for Fieldworkers

Training Village Distribution Point Agents in Lesotho

A Test of the Best Way to Present a Correspondence Lesson

Communications Support for Nurses

Self-Instructional Booklets for Rural Education

Housewive's Choices

The Use of Photo-Strips in Family Planning Education

Do People Read Leaflets?

An Experiment with Educational Radio Spots

Poultry-Keeping in Rural Lesotho

Understanding Print

Notes on Nonformal Education in Lesotho

Games to Learn By

Becoming a Service Agency — Points to Keep in Mind

Red Cross First Aid Book

What is the Census?

Your House and Mine — Our Village

Plant Beans & Make Money

How to Crochet

Education for Family Planning in Lesotho — Summary Report

All publications except *Understanding Print*, which costs U.S. $1.50, are available for the cost of postage from LDTC, P.O. Box MS 781, Maseru, Lesotho.

Seminars on Development Communications

Two seminars in development communications took place in West Africa in October. In both, officials from government ministries of health, education, agriculture, and planning together investigated how communication technologies might extend or amplify available resources in their ongoing or future programs.

Reaching dispersed or isolated rural populations, shortages of well trained teachers and extension workers, and the lack of adequate health-care facilities in rural areas are universal development problems. Therefore, seminar participants spent two days examining the histories of projects in which communication strategies have played a major beneficial role.

Among the case studies discussed were projects in which the burden of teaching primary-school mathematics was assumed by radio, those in which farmers received valuable planting information by radio and had the chance to respond with their impressions via audio cassettes, those in which study groups and radio messages significantly altered a nation's health habits, and those in which shortwave or two-way radio connecting paramedics and doctors brought diagnostic care and treatment to isolated villagers.

University-based experts from the United States and England were brought to Sierra Leone and Liberia to lead the workshops under a program sponsored by the U.S. Agency for International Development. Within that agency, the office that focuses on educational strategies using communication technology — the Office of Education and Human Resources of the Development Support Bureau (formerly the Technical Assistance Bureau) — plans to conduct a series of development communication seminars in various countries around the world. Sites will be determined on the basis of host-country requests. ■ **J.M.**

Call For Copy

Future issues of *DCR* will focus on needs assessment, learning games, and other innovative educational materials designed for use within and outside of the classroom, communication planning and policy-making, formative evaluation, and the use of media in agriculture projects.

Articles submitted to the editor by responsible persons with on-the-spot experience will be considered for publication. Highest priority will be given to materials that have not been published elsewhere.

Manuscripts on subjects other than those listed are also welcome, though special arrangements must be made for the return of any unsolicited manuscripts.

TWO REPORTS FROM DARTINGTON

Issues and Impressions

We met at Dartington Hall in September 1977 to talk about distance education for rural development. The setting is important. Dartington Hall is a medieval house set deep in the Devon countryside. The Hall and its estate were almost in ruins — literally and economically — when bought by Leonard and Dorothy Elmhirst in 1926. Since then the Elmhirsts, with the Dartington Hall Trust, rebuilt the house, revived the estate, and started a school and a college in a successful attempt to demonstrate rural development. Leonard Elmhirst had been much influenced by Rabindranath Tagore, to whom he'd been secretary in the early 1920s. When we at the International Extension College were thinking of holding a workshop on rural development for the exchange of ideas among those from different continents of the Third World, Dartington seemed an appropriate place.

We wanted to find a crossroads. Information still flows more easily from south to north than between east and west. Numbers of universities and research institutes in the rich, northern half of the world are astonishingly knowledgeable about rural development and education in the Third World. European and North American scholars can easily visit and learn something about life in Latin America and Asia. But it's far more difficult for people actually working in rural education to find out about work parallel to their own in other continents of the Third World.

Within continents there are already networks like the Latin American Association of Radiophonic Schools (ALER) and the African Association for Adult Education (AAAE) for the exchange of ideas. But education for rural development has grown up quite differently in the three continents of the Third World, from different intellectual traditions and from different ways of doing things. At Dartington, we were looking for a crossroads at which these different ways and traditions could meet.

The workshop lasted for a week. Participants ranged from the Tanzanian Minister for National Education to the Director of Farm and Home Broadcasts of All-India Radio to representatives of small educational projects aimed at only tens of thousands of participants. We were successful in keeping down the number of observers and scholars and keeping up the number of practitioners in distance teaching for rural development. We passed no resolutions, set up no international organizations, took no votes, but talked for seven days. The forthcoming report (to be available from International Extension College, 131 Hills Road, Cambridge, in early 1978, U.S. $5.00) will reflect our dialogue and concentrate on a number of issues many of us were facing.

Three sets of issues seemed particularly important at Dartington. There is value in defining them, though, of course, we were not seeking holistic solutions to them. The first is political. Many of our Latin American participants came from radiophonic schools whose work was at best tolerated and at worst obstructed by their governments. Such schools are independent of governments, often closely linked with the Roman Catholic Church, and in a number of cases follow policies that conflict with the class interests of

Aims and Actions

Michael Young set the tone of the conference by stating that distance teaching is the only viable means currently available to have education keep up with population growth in developing countries. He said that distance teaching should be a cheaper means to provide that education, should be able to provide high quality and not just rote learning and, through personal contact, should allow the learner to be flexible in what he learns.

But, it should also be pointed out, exponents and practitioners of distance teaching have to solve a number of problems. How can agricultural and health extension workers become involved in distance-teaching systems? How can village leaders be recruited and trained to head local groups? What is the best mix of media in different distance-teaching situations? Can the advantages of radio campaigns be combined with those of radio schools to meet the felt needs of rural people? How can governmental agencies be convinced to adopt distance teaching on a wide scale and, if they cannot, how can distance teaching be organized in different societies?

The conference did not address these questions directly, but the experiences of different conferees spoke to a variety of the problems. One theme that emerged in the early remarks of Michael Young (and that was alluded to a number of times but never resolved) touched on the continuity and organization of learning. Campaigns are short-lived but often have considerable impact. Farm forums touch on many topics but with no particular sequencing. Radio schools, on the other hand, often try to provide some of the organization and sequencing of more traditional instruction but have problems with people dropping out and dropping back, and losing the thread. One possible solution mentioned is the creation of shorter, self-contained modules of learning that can be broadcast over a short period. The radio school of INCUPO in Argentina tries to do this. Rather than having health, agriculture, and nutrition programs running continuously, it has a short (two-to-five week) series on topics in just one area at a time. Another approach that may speak to the problem of combining different approaches is that taken by Radio Santa Maria in the Dominican Republic. Conceiving of their radio station as a resource to serve many rural needs, the station offers programs that are strictly instructional and continuous (primary-school equivalency), others that are nonformal but still somewhat organized, campaigns that last short periods, and open broadcasting that offers relevant information, as well as news and entertainment, to listeners each day in their homes.

CONFERENCE AIMS AND THEIR REALIZATION

The conference's first aim was to bring together participants from distance-teaching institutions all over the world to share experience in rural and nonformal education and to compare practices.

The principal representation at the conference was from Africa and Latin America. The differences between these two areas of the world are reflected in the differences of the distance-teaching methods employed in each. Most of the distance-teaching efforts in Africa are *government* efforts, while most of those in Latin America are *non-government* ones. In Africa, there does not yet exist the class of elite that one finds in Latin American countries. African countries are poor and, while the little wealth available may be distributed inequitably, the social structure differs markedly from that in Latin America. Latin America has more developed wealth but, socially, that wealth has created an enclave that does not favor popular schemes of development. Because these enclaves generally wield political power as well, development efforts are left to private groups, and in Latin America these have been church-related. In Africa the church has been less developed (though in places like Eastern Nigeria, Lesotho, and Uganda, it has helped further education significantly), and the governments have had a broader outlook in terms of development.

The second aim was to draw from the participants' collective experience conclusions about the potential and relevance of distance teaching to alternative systems or patterns of nonformal education.

No doubt the participants see the potential and relevance of distance teaching and see themselves as part of a common effort being carried out in many countries. The commonality of work and the recognition of the present inadequacies of educational systems (including distance-teaching projects) both encourage and challenge them. More than anything, the conference placed new questions in the minds of participants — about programs not yet tried, about possible solutions to long-standing dilemmas, about the relationship of distance teaching to development.

The third aim was to provide information about such alternatives to countries and institutions now looking for new approaches to rural development and to work out practical guidelines for applying them.

their governments. In contrast, the African and Asian participants from government and university institutions were from countries whose governments had at least a formal commitment to rural development. Thus, the Latin American schools are free from governmental control but have constantly to decide how far they can go towards land reform — the basis of any genuine rural development — without being closed down. Most of the institutions from Africa and Asia are subject to tighter control by government, but are not faced with such stark contradictions between government policy and the needs of rural people. They had to determine for themselves appropriate political stances.

The second set of issues was social. The problems of the countryside need to be solved in the countryside. (And so, if a rural education project is to be any good, it can't be planned and organized in its entirety from a capital city.) But the demands from students — the needs of participants — are not so clear-cut. Basic education, designed to enable rural adults to increase their control over their own lives, with a view to improving the lot of the rural community generally, also enables people to leave the countryside for the town. Education to strengthen and help the rural community cannot be separated from education that helps people to leave that community. Education may easily, if unintentionally, help create town slums or increase urban overcrowding, and fail to help rural development. What sort of education should we be offering was at least as important a question to us as questions about the methods of education.

We also discussed several sets of educational issues. A particularly difficult set concerns the curriculum for nonformal education, and here we found that there may be Latin American answers to African questions. It is easy enough to design an educational project to meet a specific need — a limited change in agriculture or a small improvement in health practice or an innovative literacy project, for example. And, between us, we had a fair amount of experience on the use of distance teaching for such jobs. But education, if it is to be effective and liberate people from the constraints of ignorance and the greater power of those more educated than themselves, demands more than the knowledge of odd bits of improved practice.

Traditionally, education has depended on the sequential mastery of knowledge that builds up into a versatile intellectual framework, relevant and applicable to new problems. That is what the orthodox six or seven years of primary schooling is all for.

How, then, do we create an out-of-school system that reflects the needs and interests of rural people but also builds up to an equivalent basic education? Latin American radio schools have gone part of the way, though hampered by the diploma disease, with rural curricula leading to equivalency examinations. There's hope that countries like Mozambique and Tanzania with a genuine national commitment to rural education will show us a clearer way forward here, building on the Latin American experience but advancing from it. We live in hope. The workshop increased our hope and justified our faith that the methods of distance teaching are effective enough for us to concentrate on those more interesting, and more difficult, kinds of questions.

■ **Hilary Perraton, Co-Director, International Extension College, U.K.**

In pursuit of this goal, the conference participants were divided into seminar groups, focusing separately on Jamaica, Lesotho, Dominica, and Mozambique. Projects represented by delegates from those nations received the ideas and reactions of the group. The problems of each country differ. India, with 610 million people, contrasted most sharply with Dominica (population 80,000), but the necessity of providing fuller human life for citizens of those nations and the attempt to use distance education to do so supplied the rationale for the exchange of ideas. As a group, we could not issue a set of directives that would be universally applicable, but a synthesis of some of the principal themes will be prepared by the IEC.

One point of consensus was the need for all the aspects of distance teaching — broadcasting, correspondence, and face-to-face contact. In particular, the conferees voiced their conviction that personal contact could *not* be dispensed with. India has particular problems with face-to-face contact, given its vast population. While for some general information campaigns All-India Radio was satisfied with broadcasting, the Indians recognize the need for fuller contact with the villagers to promote the more salient aspects of human development. The experiences of Latin American radio schools and of the radio campaigns in Tanzania and Botswana represent validations of the full model of distance teaching.

The fourth aim was to work out ways of continuing the exchange of information and experience.

In the closing session, the chairman of the IEC suggested ways to maintain the impetus begun by the meeting. After discounting the usefulness of forming a "world association of extension education" in light of the proliferation of such groups already, he proposed forming an informal group with continuing ties (perhaps with a link to the International Council of Adult Education in Toronto) to deal with such questions as these: What would be the functions of such a group? What kinds of mutual aid would be provided? Would this involve short-term exchanges of staff? How would funding be arranged?

No general conclusions were formally adopted at the meeting. But all supported the idea of holding another meeting in two years' time and the idea that visits of Latin Americans to Africa, Africans to Asia, Asians to Latin America, and so on would be a valuable means of maintaining contact and exchanging usable information. Work exchanges did not get strong backing, because of their artificial nature and because of language problems. It was also suggested that future meetings be held in developing countries, where a concrete distance-learning project can be both the centerpiece and point of reference.

EVALUATION ISSUES

Evaluation was not a principal topic of this meeting; it is a subject that the participants recognize as important, but few have had to deal with evaluation seriously as yet. The process of goal-setting and goal-measuring becomes increasingly urgent, however, as funding shortages raise issues of accountability. In general, distance teaching has the aura of a "good thing" about it because it is aimed at giving people who are hard to reach information that they sorely need. Distance teaching uses radio, and so it benefits from an association with "technology responding to human needs." Part of this aura is the common faith that as technology has produced solutions to many human problems, so too it will produce a solution to the wide lack of adequate education. Persons working with distance teaching benefit from the prestige accruing to technology.

A second factor insulating distance educators from rigorous evaluation is the coverage that broadcasting provides. This is especially true of government-run projects. Given the needs of scattered populations for education, the use of distance-teaching methods seems proper. These methods have a reach beyond all other current systems because they contain broadcast components. Politically, they demonstrate concern about broad coverage by using a broad method.

OVERALL IMPRESSIONS

This was a valuable meeting, mainly because it brought together practitioners. The level of discussion was concrete and rooted in the participants' own experience. For those with extensive training, as well as for those who had learned in the field, the project focus represented a common point of reference.

Participants learned from each other. The seminars that focused on particular nations afforded the participants from those nations a kind of group consultancy, one that seemed well appreciated. It was these sessions that provided whatever specific ideas and plans the conference produced. Overall, participants benefitted from their association with far-flung colleagues and from the reinforcement that the group gave to both general goals and general methods.

■ **Peter L. Spain and Emile G. McAnany, The Institute for Communication Research, Stanford University**

A Communicator's Checklist

1 The most purposeful way to bridge what is identified on the flyleaf of Juan Bordenave's latest book as the "gap between theory and practice in rural-development efforts involving communication media" is to hazard a few generalizations on the efforts made so far. But, since the meaning of "development" is elusive and subjective, those who would serve the truth must serve up the facts.

The facts, in this case, are project descriptions and evaluations, ten of which fill sixty pages of *Communication and Rural Development*. Bordenave does not start cold with hard data, however. Instead, he devotes the first section of his book to an overview of the evolution of communication theory as it applies to rural development. In a brief and readable account, he provides a means (history) of reckoning with communication issues in general and with the case studies that he presents. He guides the reader through what to a lesser mind than his might seem a morass, making the replacement of mechanistic models of communication first by structuralist and later by systemic models seem natural, even logical.

So skillful is the thumbnail history, in fact, that the case studies themselves — which include reports on ACPO, India's farm forums and PEIFEDER, among others — are disappointing in comparison. No doubt at least partly because the source materials varied widely in thrust and emphasis, some of the profiles seem to resist the format they share. Moreover, opportunities for smoothing out the differences by paraphrasing or editing the material have been passed up. The problem is not merely stylistic: the reader naturally wonders if the sources could have been handled more critically and carefully.

Such doubt is only partially allayed in the third section. That the generalizations Bordenave offers are for the most part more negative than the case studies is disturbing.

Bordenave appears to have read between the lines perceptively, but the reader probably will not reach the same conclusions using only the case studies at hand and so is left with the nagging suspicion that something important has been left out.

These complaints aside, several ideas that warrant close study do emerge from the concluding analysis. Bordenave notes, for example, that none of the ostensibly typical projects reviewed in Part II was requested by the people it was designed to help. Like others before him, he challenges the wisdom of testing brainy ideas for projects on people whose true needs have either been neglected or left to find expression by outside observers. In like vein, he makes much of the fact that virtually all of the projects described in the case studies failed to make full or adequate use of "change agents" in the field.

Bordenave's musing on the use of media in the ten projects discussed, perhaps the strongest section of the wrap-up, gells into seven related points that reflect both experience and insight. Chief among them is that the communication components of the projects too often resemble fine shoes that don't fit, that the intrinsic value of a medium is frequently accorded more weight than its value within a particular context.

The last word in Bordenave's book is devoted to research, but this section represents scarcely more than a postscript. The generalization toward which the analysis moves comes in the section on utilization (subtitled "diffusion"). It is that communication programs follow one of three strategies — emphasizing the flow of communication among rural people, the use of communication to facilitate positive social change, or both — and that the combined approach, "rural communication-education," should be used exclusively in developing countries.

In all, the presentation of the case studies leaves much to be desired and the analysis only a little. Had the reverse been true, this book would have taken its place beside many others of the kind whose arguments never quite reach their destination. As it is, *Communication and Rural Development* suffers serious losses of credibility along the way but manages to drive its main points home in the end.

Communication and Rural Development can be obtained from UNESCO, 7 Place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris. ■ **K.C.**

2 Two recent publications offer some indication of the current status of book publishing in the developing world. Both are published by UNESCO, which has a long-standing interest in book promotion worldwide.

The Economics of Book Publishing in the Developing World by Datus Smith shows how both the small size of reading publics and scarcities of marketing and management skills keep book publishing a relatively low volume and high cost endeavor in most countries. Results of an extensive survey are reported and recommendations are listed for improving the current situation.

"The Impact of Transnational Book Publishing on Knowledge in the Less Developed Countries" *(Prospects*, June, 1977) by Keith Smith maintains that the global reach and market power of international publishers often stymie national publishers. However, in the large internal markets, such as that for primary-school textbooks, many countries do their own publishing, often through state monopolies. Light fiction and study "cram books" are two other markets that the international concerns have not generally entered.

Smith laments what he terms the metropolitan orientation of the international publishers, and its impact upon their selection of manuscripts and their marketing strategies. However, he notes that international concerns often publish controversial developing-country authors with whom national publishers are afraid to work. He also praises the international understanding that results from the presence of the international companies.

Both *The Economics of Book Publishing in the Developing World* and *Prospects* are available through the national distributors of UNESCO publications. Prices will vary. ■ **J.G.**

3 Harry Kybett's book provides the layperson with useful technical information on videocassette machines. The author describes the various machines in common use, emphasizing the U-matic format introduced by Sony, but also including cartridge systems, the Philips cassette system, and the new Sony betamax half-inch home-use system. The book includes chapters on basic operations of the equipment, procedures for maintenance, and trouble-shooting. Also covered are several technical chapters that discuss various interconnections of equipment, videocassette electronics, and input/output circuitry.

Although the book contains much useful technical information and is well illustrated with easy-to-follow diagrams, its organization makes the content hard to follow. The author states he is writing for non-technical users such as educators, students, and industrial users, but he does not approach the subject from the users' point of view. Instead, he jumps from common sense instructions likely to be found in an equipment manual to detailed discussion of electronics and back to simple maintenance. The author points out some of the shortcomings of videocassette technology, such as cueing and editing difficulties, but does not provide sufficient step-by-step guidance on procedures and modifications — he does not, in short, make sure the user can carry out his suggestions.

This is not a manual on how to produce videotapes. Its most valuable information is in the chapters that describe the various components of the recording machines and cassettes. Equipment modifications suggested by the author require access to electronic components and should be attempted only by a person with some technical knowledge.

The Complete Handbook of Videocassette Recorders can be obtained from TAB BOOKS, P.O. Box 40, Blue Ridge Summit, PA 17214 for $5.95 (paperback). ■ **Heather Hudson, Academy for Educational Development**

4 In a perfect world, an annotated bibliography would be well-structured easy to use, comprehensive, and shot with critical insights. It would be fair but would not pretend to objectivity, since readers use such bibliographies to dismiss the irrelevant as well as to track down the valuable. For the immediate future, a bibliography such as Peter M. Lewis' *Video In Non-Formal Education*, which meets most of these criteria most of the time, is welcome.

Lewis helps readers get their bearings in this 100-page work by spelling out his assumptions, setting the boundaries of the discussion, and defining the terms used throughout. He also devotes several pages to capsulizing recent thought on the social impact of video and to briefing decision-makers (for whose use the book is primarily intended) on video's potential and drawbacks. In particular, he forewarns readers that his interest resides mainly in applications of video suitable for use in the Third World and reveals that his own approach is informed by his experience as a practitioner.

Individual bibliographic entries combine coverage of projects with that of reports and institutions. Quotations are abundant and the bibliographer's comments, often as not questions or asides, are set off from the summaries. The items are categorized by region and vary in length from two lines to two pages.

While the introduction tends to be knotty when it is abstract, Lewis' much-needed study is for the most part carefully wrought. Its worth, in fact, prompts one to hope that its existence will be made widely known so that others in the field add to rather than duplicate Lewis' effort.

"*Video In Non-Formal Education*" (ED-77/WS/126) can be obtained from UNESCO's Division of Structures, Contents, Methods, and Techniques of Education, Section MMT, 7 Place de Fontenoy, 75007, Paris, France. ■ **K.C.**

5 Two books of essays grew out of the Aspen Institute's six-part conference on TV held in 1974 and 1975. Both deal with the medium of television as it is used in the United States. Both list only Americans as contributors. And both require of readers more than a passing interest in American society and culture. What's more, a few of the essays in each volume may escape the grasp of those unfamiliar with American commercial TV fare, whether they live in New Delhi or New York.

But all with a stake or interest in the future of television will find and value in these volumes the first stages of the sort of unrelenting interrogation of TV that must be sustained if the medium is to be freed of its inhibiting image as technology's joyrider and the arts' dumb relative. They will also find a crude map and history of TV — navigating aids of inestimable worth on such new and fragmented terrain.

Television as a Social Force: New Approaches to TV Criticism and *Television as a Cultural Force* form what rhetoricians call an argument by example. They are at once both pleas for a "higher criticism" of television and examples of that higher criticism, and the contributors hone their critics' tools by wielding them. Thus, the essayists who examine specific shows and trends are in a sense one jump ahead of those whose focus is on the medium in general or on the socio-cultural context in which the medium is used. To go just one step farther, as a few contributors to this discussion do, is to hold that television producers and technicians have left the critics behind, a perfectly reasonable but nevertheless unsettling idea.

Just how unsettling the notion that there may be more to TV than meets the eye and ear can be is a subject to which commentators turn again and again in these books. In particular, many of them chide their fellow journalists, academicians, educators, and art critics for holding TV in contempt and thus stunting its creative growth even as its popularity rises. Such willful blindness to TV's potential, the argument goes, is willful blindness to its potential impact — a political, if not aesthetic, mistake. (In *Social Force*, related political questions surface: Michael Robinson contends that total reliance upon TV as a news source is ultimately depoliticizing, and Richard Adler cites Joseph T. Klapper's speculative finding that "pervasive mass communication functions far more frequently as an agent of reinforcement than as an agent of change.")

The notion at the bottom of this contempt (that the mass media are the crass media) might strike some in the Third World, where TV ownership has completely different connotations, as novel in the extreme. But thinking that stops here will not carry the point. For TV's detractors may be far more vocal than numerous (in the United States, the college-educated, from whose ranks most TV critics come, watch more TV than do high school dropouts). Thus, the central issue is that a statistically insignificant but otherwise powerful group is passing judgment on a phenomenon that it does not, apparently, understand: for whatever else TV is, it is popular.

It can, of course, always be argued that critics never know what they are talking about or that no one need heed critics. But the case of TV criticism is special for at least two reasons. First, as the composition of the roster of writers in these two volumes confirms anew, most TV critics know more about something other than TV (usually journalism, public opinion, literature, or education) than they do about TV itself. They tend to earn their authority in one field and to exercise it in another. Second, most U.S. TV, unlike most of the arts to which it is unfavorably compared, is commercial and made to order. Hence, TV critics are perforce more than arbiters of taste; they necessarily become agents of economic and social change, affecting production as well as consumption. (Even with respect to TV in Third World countries, the first point holds insofar as the burden of broadcasting often falls to transportation or education experts, and the second applies when amended to read government for private broadcasting corporations and critics.)

In general, the writers represented in these books share the conviction that TV must be taken seriously as a vehicle of information and as a labor-saving device. Most even lobby gently for its acceptance as an art form. Only one actually says that critics need be diehard fans of TV, but the assumption underlies many of the best essays in the collections.

Besides that of legitimacy for the medium itself, a few other cries reverberate throughout these essays. One is for the "long view," for criticism that takes as its subject programming trends or a type of program or dozens of episodes of a series rather than a single program; this approach, of course, leads to discussions of values and history and the transmission of culture. (Robert S. Alley's "Media Medicine and Morality" and Sharon Lynn Sperry's "Television News as Narrative" in *Cultural Force* are examples of precisely this kind of criticism.) Another is that for using the TV critic's column to expose lies and errors as well as to praise and damn. This is a variation of a call heard in other quarters: for criticism that leads to self-examination as well as to judgment.

Not all the motions raised in these two books are seconded. (Peter H. Wood's provocative "Television as Dream" in *Cultural Force*, for example, has no sequel.) But something like a consensus does emerge from discussants who seem open-minded but anything but like-minded. And this consensus leads the reader to hope, if not exactly to believe, that "higher criticism" (and thus higher TV) is indeed in store, if for no other reason than that a need for it has been so well articulated.

If any flaw marks books so free of cant and so full of ideas, it is that each is separated only artificially from the other. While *Social Force* contains one essay on TV and politics and *Cultural Force* two papers of a distinctly literary bent, the split of the essays into two volumes seems to be a concession to the marketplace rather than an organizing device. On the other hand, each book stands alone, and the appropriateness of half-hour essays that are uninterrupted by commercial messages, that jump from subject to subject, and that together constitute one evening's worth of stimulation does not go unnoticed.

Television as a Social Force: New Approaches to TV Criticism and *Television as a Cultural Force*, both edited by Richard Adler and Douglas Cater, can be purchased in paperback for $4.95 each from Praeger Publishers, 111 Fourth Avenue, New York, New York 10003. ■ **K.C.** →

6 While such innovative materials would seem to defy even twisted cliches, the kit called *Working with Villagers* is proof that the medium is the message and that covers say quite a bit about books.

Basic workshop materials decked out in primary colors, this package was designed for use in training fieldworkers in home economics (broadly defined as all local activity that bears on the well-being of the family). The kit has four parts (a trainers' manual, a series of prototype lessons, a media resource book, and a sourcebook for teachers), three uses (to help fieldworkers master adult-education techniques, incorporate the family-planning message into traditional home economics, and produce their own teaching materials inexpensively), two sponsors (the American Home Economics Association International Family Planning Project and the East-West Communication Institute), and one unifying theme (that family planning is a basic determinant of the quality of every villager's life).

Although put together by a committee, *WORKING WITH VILLAGERS* is seamless and for the most part coherent. To read the *Trainers' Manual* does require heroic acts of imagination of the sort that good cooks can sometimes muster. Bare outlines and fine ideas suffice only when the reader-user has a reserve of experience to draw upon, and the novice may flinch at the many appeals to "good judgment" made in the manual. But the omission of spoon-fed detail is less a shortcoming than the reflection of an editorial decision; this book was not intended to train the trainer along with the trainee and was not allowed to attain the size of an encyclopedia.

In contrast to the *Trainers' Manual*, the volume of prototype lessons on infant and toddler nutrition, decision-making, family food supplies, family relationships, and family planning is virtually self-explanatory. It contains indexed sample lessons that easily lend themselves to translation, modification, and duplication. Along with a statement of the problem, a list of the ideas that deserve emphasis, and a list of materials and supplies that could facilitate learning, each lesson plan gives the trainer suggestions for ways (other than conventional testing) of finding out whether the audience got anything out of the session.

The *Media Resource Book* includes 19 skill exercises on such basic aspects of graphic production as cutting, lettering, drawing, and tracing. It also features discussions of the creative use of the blackboard, the flannelgraph, and the flipchart, and easy-to-follow discourse on the principles of color and design. With or without artistic talent, fieldworkers (for whom this component of the kit was designed) will probably be able to make repeated use of the hundreds of common figures that can be traced or copied from this book.

The *Sourcebook for Teachers*, which appears to have been developed as part of another curriculum project but which fits well in this package, contains classroom exercises on the same subjects as the prototype lessons. Comprised of four booklets and a resource catalogue, it is a small reference book of suggestions whose ultimate worth will probably be determined by the user's energy and ingenuity.

Like any unfamiliar medium, this collection is momentarily disorienting. But novelty is played off against forethought and sound pedagogy in its pages, so it will probably be used as widely as it is distributed.

Working With Villagers, which comes in a transparent plastic envelope, can be obtained from the American Home Economics Association International Family Planning Project, 2010 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, U.S.A. for $15.00 including postage. Its parts are also available separately. ■ **K.C.**

7 Must a book with 125 photographs and 75 diagrams, jacketed in a bright blue and white cover be aimed solely at the popular market? No. Andreas Fuglesang works very hard to use relevant photographs, diagrams, and spartan text to present his — and others' — ideas about "applied communication," but his fourth and latest book on the subject, *Doing Things . . . Together*, is not for the passive reader.

Fuglesang's book is about the fundamental issue of Third World development: how to move in an orderly and humane fashion from present rural conditions, deemed unacceptable by many, to a condition of improved living standards without degrading human and natural resources in the process. The term "Another Development" is used by the Dag Hammarskjold Foundation — and echoed by Fuglesang — to describe the process of change within a harmonious, interactive structure. Fuglesang's basic theme is that fundamental change is needed in both decision-making and in the societal communications fabric and that Appropriate Technology — sometimes called Alternative Technology — represents a possible starting point.

Fuglesang's thoughts are in tune with those of Western young people who, though full-fledged members of the television and computer generation, have taken to the countryside or craft cottage to live a simpler, pastoral life and to feel greater control over their destinies. Readers may be put on guard lest Fuglesang's implicit romanticism, which he is quick to admit may exist and which is easy enough to entertain at United Nations Plaza, crumble when tested against the hard realities of rural Mexico, India, or the Sudan.

Yet, Fuglesang quiets our doubts on this count soon enough. In the middle part of the book, Fuglesang is careful to place Appropriate Technology within the larger context of process — a jumping off point for looking at more fundamental issues. He prevents us from getting bogged down in yet another "hardware"-oriented stage of thinking (educational technology still bears this cross in too many instances). By treating Appropriate Technology as process, he has prepared us to move along to consider the more abstract notion of the position of the individual in society and of small groups within the larger context of the nation — particularly the nation with the scattered, decentralized populations so common throughout the rural Third World. Many related issues then become relevant and are touched upon by Fuglesang — belief systems, linguistics, and politics. Rather than treating them as isolated, academic subjects, he stresses their inter-relationship with development.

Fuglesang's experience in rural Africa and elsewhere enables him to temper his theoretical framework with realism and with sensitivity to ordinary people. Indeed, the strength of the various Hammarskjold-sponsored seminars/workshops in general is that they usually involve those who deal with practical problems of development, rather than those whose idea of problem-solving is paper-pushing. (It is clear also that the Hammarskjold Foundation permits Fuglesang to express his views freely. This is not an institution dominated by a cautious and conservative bureaucracy, but one that gives a single individual leave to dominate all phases of a book's production — a rare publishing occurrence. This is a personal document, in the end almost a letter to an unnamed friend.)

But the earlier warning should be repeated. Fuglesang is exploring in highly abstract terms new societal groupings as a prerequisite for development, and his style makes the reader proceed slowly. While direct and quite free of jargon, it requires close reading at times. His is not a style that requires repeated reference to a dictionary, but it does force the reader to refer to personal experience to confirm or deny the arguments presented. In short, be prepared to pause and reflect along the way, taking in the photographs and diagrams.

Those looking for an analysis of the role of communications in the context of Appropriate Technology will be disappointed with Fuglesang's book. But they will be rewarded to find a broader perspective from which to contemplate the place of the concept of Appropriate Technology within the framework of decision-making and within participatory efforts by villagers in creating their own destinies. And that is a more significant aspect of development than communicating a hundred and one uses of discarded kerosene tins.

Doing Things . . . Together is available from the Dag Hammarskjold Foundation, Ovre Slottsgatan 2, S-752 20 Uppsala, Sweden for Sw. Kr. 40 (about U.S. $8.25) by surface mail or Sw. Kr. 50 (about U.S. $10.25) by air mail. ■ **David Giltrow, United Kingdom**

Dilemmas (Continued)

conference held outside of Country X many months after I made my recommendations. To my horror, I found out that both the well-qualified fieldworker and the official who asked me to investigate the research methods had been fired, while the incompetent researcher had been kept on to carry out the survey single-handedly.

I also found out that the supervisor had defended the incompetent researcher when pressed by the home office of the sponsoring agency.

Apparently, somebody somewhere owed someone a favor. It was rumored at the conference that the incompetent researcher was in the good graces of the project supervisor because he had been recommended for the job by a friend (the same person who saw to it that the regional official lost her job). Whatever the real reason, it strikes me as a shame that the obligation to the villagers did not outweigh that to the friend.

Perhaps dilemmas like this one can never be completely avoided. But the sponsoring agency could have taken a few simple and neutral measures (such as examining all applicants' credentials with care) that could have called this ill-suited individual's qualifications into question before he became entrenched in the project. At any rate, the agency should in the future require detailed resumes (of both work and academic experience) so that one type of professional is not called in when another type is clearly needed and so that favoritism is kept in check. ■

Cheap & Easy

HECTOGRAPH

Lindy Layer

This is one of the cheapest short-run reproduction processes. Hectograph is the original name for spirit duplication or the ditto process.

To construct the "machine," you will need the following materials:

2 shallow rectangular baking pans
Dry gelatin
Glycerine

PREPARATION

Mix 8 teaspoons gelatin into 1¼ cups of water (or corresponding proportions: 16/2½). Cook in a double boiler to let soften. While gelatin is dissolving, warm up a pint of glycerine. Add the glycerine to the gelatin and cook in the double boiler for ½ hour over medium heat. Pour the mixture into one of the rectangular pans. Let it cool for 24 hours. This mixture can sometimes be purchased in office supply stores.

STENCILS

Stencils can be purchased or ordered through office supply stores. They are carbon-backed and come in various colors. The purple, red, and green reproduce best. They cost about 10¢ each or less.

With the hectograph, you can use more than one color to add emphasis or make your visual more attractive. Prepare each section on a different master.

NOTE

The hectograph, unlike regular ditto, is a REVERSAL process. Prepare your stencil from the BACK. The carbon image on the master will be RIGHT READING. The image on the gelatin will be REVERSED; the image on your copy will be RIGHT READING.

PRINTING

Roll your master(s) onto the gelatin. The images will appear on the gelatin. Now roll your paper over the images. For transparencies use frosted acetate and, when the ink has dried, spray to clear with plastic spray.

The second pan is used for a cover! If possible, keep a piece of waxed paper over the gelatin. Just let the mixture sit. The carbon images will work their way down through the gelatin. If you have to print more than one page at a time, make a series of hectographs.

U.P.A. 594 Logan Avenue, Toronto, Ontario, CANADA M4K3B8

Women in Development and The Media

Women from 20 developing countries and several Western nations met in Houston in mid-November to exchange ideas and to hammer out strategies for strengthening women's voice and power in the development process. Invited representatives met for four days under the auspices of the U.S. State Department's Bureau of Education & Cultural Affairs, U.S. AID's Women in Development Office, and UNESCO at the site of the U.S. National Women's Conference.

AID's opening, filled-to-capacity session focused on identifying the basic needs and issues of women in development. Panels of consultants and Third World guests delivered hard-hitting indictments of the status quo and called for greater access for women to vocational training programs, leadership and planning positions, and male-dominated careers. Panelists also fielded pointed questions from an audience whose shared sense of urgency offset and finally overtopped differences of opinion.

Subsequent sessions dealt with a wide range of issues, including child care, the part women in developed countries can play in helping their poor-country counterparts, and the need to involve men in development activities aimed at improving women's lot.

The consultation closed with two sessions, one a panel discussion on the changing roles of women worldwide. Moderated by U.S. journalist Perdita Huston and addressed by Margaret Mead among others, the open meeting attracted hundreds of women from the U.S. national conference. Cries heard again and again during the four days took on a sharper edge in this wrap-up and were followed by specific and concrete suggestions for meeting women's long-range and short-term needs. Changes in women's status since the IWY conference held in Mexico City in 1975 were assessed, the legal obstacles and solutions to women's entitlement were laid out, and the problems of strengthening the ties of women in the face of strained diplomatic relations were hashed over.

The UNESCO-sponsored segment of the conference culminated in a workshop on women and the media, which was chaired by Barbara Good and Bill Harley of the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO. Workshop participants considered the impact of U.S. mass media on Third World women and strategies for strengthening the power and correcting the image of developing-country women in the mass media. Media professionals attending this session were also asked to react to and amend the media guidelines proposed by the IWY Media Committee in 1975, which are presently being revised.

Further information on the AID-sponsored portion of this consultation can be obtained from Arvonne Fraser, Coordinator for Women in Development, Agency for International Development, Washington, D.C. 20520. Additional information on the Media Workshop is available from Yvette Abrahamson, UNESCO, 7 Place de Fontenoy, 75007, Paris, France; Barbara Good, Program and Information Officer, U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, U.S. Department of State, or The Editor, *DCR*. ■ **K.C.**

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Readers are invited to submit typed manuscripts of no more than 1000 words and to send in photographs.

Dilemmas in Country X: Candid discussions about failures

The fourth contribution to this column is the first written by a communication specialist from a developing country. The story, submitted anonymously, is based on the age-old theme of politically protected ineptitude. But it also has a twist that marks it as modern — a key official involved in the events described is a woman. An insider's view, this narrative ends with a caveat, a constructive suggestion, and a knowing sigh.

(The editor invites readers to submit reports for this column. Authors' names — as well as those of the people, agencies, and countries involved in the projects — will be withheld upon request.)

About three years ago, I was summoned from my post as an advisor in a middle-sized rural development institution in Country X by a district government official. A dedicated person with a proven interest in and knowledge of rural development, she expressed grave doubts about the validity of a research project being sponsored by an international aid agency in our country. When I showed my interest in the future of the project, she laid the facts of the matter before me.

She told me that a three-person team was currently conducting a survey of ten villages to determine the felt needs of the villagers, most of whom depended upon agriculture for their living. She also told me that the preliminary results of this research effort aimed at helping planners implement a new nonformal education project were inexplicably at odds with those of past studies and, she added rather hesitantly, with her own observations. She then expressed faith in my powers of judgment, my knowledge of rural development, and my ten years of experience in running such studies. On the heels of this praise followed the request to see what I could find out about the research methodologies being employed in Project Z. She said I had ten days and her blessing.

I thought I was pressed for time, but it actually took less than ten days to discover the problem. I saw immediately that one of the three people charged with carrying out the survey was well suited to the task: he understood the local culture, the general state of agriculture in Country X, and the weaknesses of the 30-item questionnaire the team was administering orally. The second member of the team was a different story. He was personable and cooperative enough, but he didn't know the first thing about rural development or about social-science research. Trained as a linguist, he was more interested in local dialects than in local development problems and had little professional motivation to carry out the survey in a way that served the goals of the sponsoring organization. It seemed at times, in fact, as if he simply had nothing better to do or had his mind on his paycheck. The third member of the team acted mainly as a supervisor. He had visited the project area briefly but was not engaged in any of the fieldwork. When I met him in the regional capital before I interviewed and observed the other two team-members, I felt that he was well-versed in the particulars of project operation but not especially open to new ideas or pleased that I had been asked to investigate this team. But he was, I knew from previous experience, fairly well-liked by both local people and international consultants.

After spending a few days with the two researchers, I felt certain that the project that would follow the survey could come to little good if the preliminary research was not taken out of the incompetent survey-taker's hands. In particular, he let his own academic biases cloud his interpretation of questions related to literacy. Naturally, all who were polled said literacy was a good thing, while some had little knowledge (and, hence, little enthusiasm) about fertilizer use or poultry-raising. But he mistakenly assumed that this meant that literacy was the villagers' foremost development priority. When I administered the same questionnaire to the same villagers, I found that almost all forms of income-generating activity held greater interest for the villagers than literacy did, even though those questioned valued literacy. Repeatedly, the linguist confused the villagers' approval of this and other items on the questionnaire with their desire to acquire them.

At the end of the ten days, my first suspicions were confirmed by evidence of the linguist's lack of research skills. I spelled out this evidence, along with the grounds for my belief that fluency in a language can be dangerous if not accompanied by "fluency" in the local culture and relevant professional skills, in a 20-page report that I submitted both to the official who hired me and to the international agency that had funded the project and selected the researchers. The agency, in turn, showed it to both the fieldworkers and the project supervisor.

In my report, I recommended that the agency take one of two courses. It should either replace the incompetent party (easy enough, since several highly trained researchers were available in the project area) or turn the entire project over to the more qualified researcher.

I heard about the outcome of this project quite by chance at an international

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